# **Electrical Measurements**

Code: EPM1202

Lecture: 4 Tutorial: 2 Total: 6

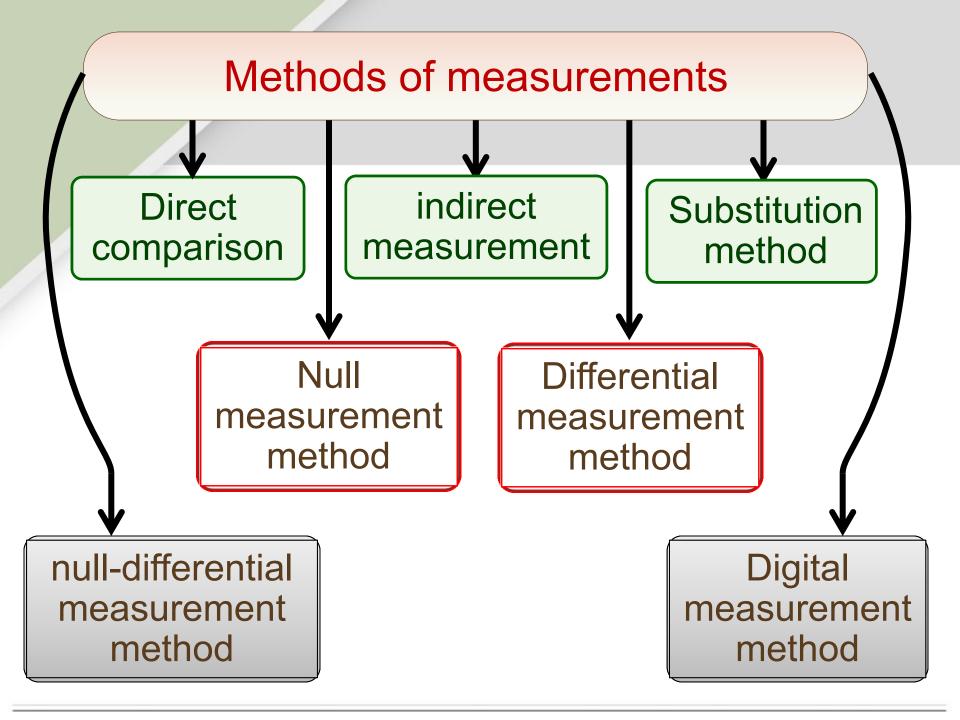
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## Direct comparison

High accuracy with low uncertainty

Requires trained operator and relatively large time to carry out the measurement

Unknown current can be measured by comparing its magnetic effect with a standard current

# **Direct comparison**

The unknown current "I<sub>x</sub>" passes through one coil of the electromagnet causing an attraction on one arm of the balance

The standard current

"Is" flows through the coil on second arm of the balance causing another attractive force

## Direct comparison

Changing the value of the standard current can cause a balance in the weight

The equilibrium state is reached when the pointer is at the zero position, and thus, the unknown current can be measured

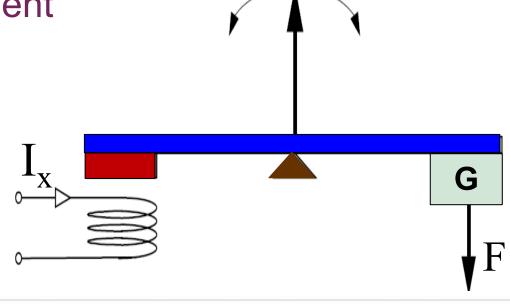
#### Indirect measurement

The current can be measured using a weight

The pointer movement depends on arm attraction by the force depending on the measured current "lx"

The force of gravity "F" of weight "G" balances this movement No standard current is used in measurement  $I_x$ 

This method is employed in indicating instruments

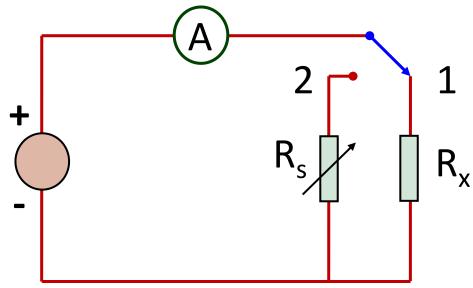


#### Substitution method

It is used to measure the unknown value keeping the same measured value

The current through the unknown resistance  $R_x$  is measured using the ammeter with the switch is in position 1

The switch is then changed to position 2 and the standard resistance  $R_s$  is modified until the reading is the same like the first one



#### **Null measurement method**

A simple, accurate and widely used measurement method

The instrument reading is adjusted to read zero current only and the balance state is indicated by a pointer or electrically by a zero reading

Calculations are required to obtain the unknown value

The balancing process is indicated using a potentiometer or a bridge

The calibration of the meter is unnecessary

A sensitive milliammeter or microammeter with zerocentre position, called a galvanometer, can be used

## Differential measurement "analogue" method

No balance state is required since the deflection of the pointer or the output reading is used as the measure of the value

The application of this method is when continuously monitoring of the value is required

Generally, electromechanical instruments depend on the analogue method

#### null-differential measurement method

It is a combined measurement method

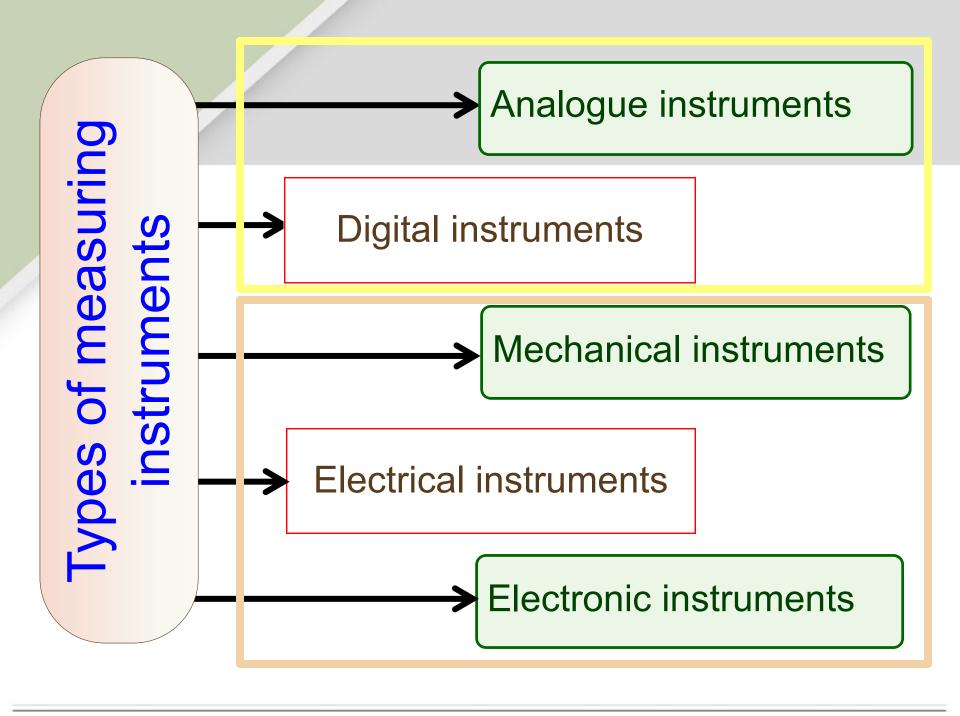
A roughly balance is achieved and a pointer deflection, or change of the output reading, occurs due to the difference between equilibrium and actual states

Using the null-differential method, an improvement of

the sensitivity of the measurement can be achieved since the movement of the pointer can be realized by the smaller currents

#### Digital measurement method

It depends on sampling the signal and indicates the reading using discrete numbers



Analogue instruments

deflecting devices

controlling devices

damping devices

Current or voltage produce mechanical force, causing pointer deflection

- Control force opposites
   the deflecting force to
   ensure same deflection
   with the same measured
   quantity
- It prevents the pointer from continuous movement to the maximum deflection

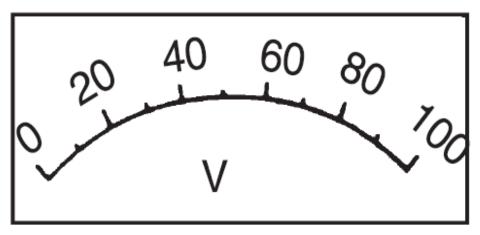
The damping force ensures the stability of the pointer at its final position as quick as possible and without large oscillations

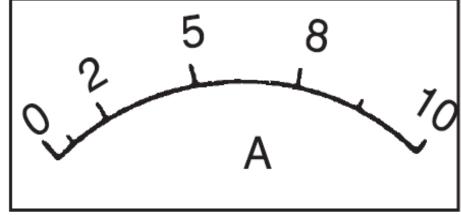
#### **Analogue instruments**

They have two types of scales: linear and non-linear.

The divisions or graduations In linear scale instruments are equally spaced

The scale in non-linear scale instruments is overcrowded at the beginning and the graduations are uneven throughout the range





## Digital instruments

They have a much higher input resistance (as high as 1000 MW) and can handle a much wider range of frequency (from d.c. up to MHz)

The accuracy and resolution is higher and automatic range adjustment is possible

Digital instruments provide digital display of the measured value and can be used for ac and dc measurements

They can measure voltage, current, resistance and other variables at the same time

#### Mechanical instruments

- These instruments depend on mechanical effects and movements in their operation
- They are characterized by their heavy weight, large size and high prices
- Due to the normal inertia of mechanical parts, the response of these instruments is slow
- They are not suitable for transient and dynamic applications
- They can be used to measure steady and stable operation

#### **Electrical instruments**

- They comprise electrical circuits and depend on the electromagnetic effects on their operation
- A magnetic field is produced using either a permanent magnet or a coil
- The reading depends on the interaction between the magnetic and the electric circuit
- The response is faster than that of the mechanical instrument with smaller size and weight
- There is higher possibility for faults and problems inside the instrument

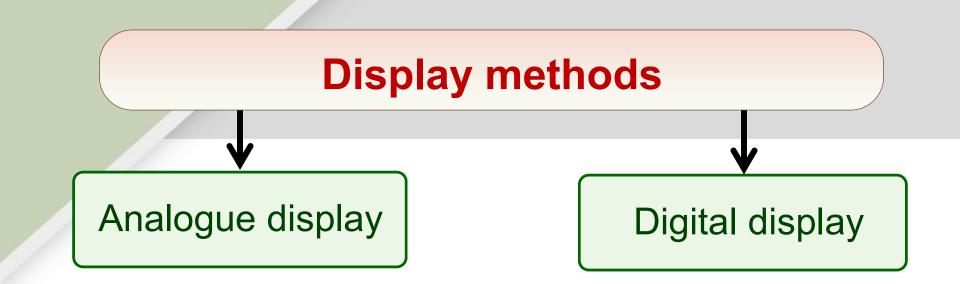
#### **Electronic instruments**

Electronic instruments comprise electronic devices and circuits on their operation

The response is very fast due to the use of electronic switches

They can be used with continuously varied measurements

The measured values depend on the rating of the electronic devices such as diodes and transistors



The measured value can be displayed by different methods

The first method is the "analogue display", which depends on either pointer or graphical display

The second method is the "digital display", which depends on numeric display

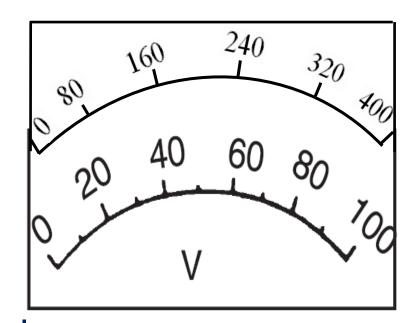
# **Display methods**

## Analogue display

Analogue display can be pointer or graphical display Pointer devices have the problem of "parallax", which can cause an error in the reading if the operator looks

to the pointer with an angle

A mirror is used to help the operator to look onto the pointer with a vertical angle Sometimes, multi-scale pointer instruments are used and the scales are placed in different levels



# **Display methods**

## Analogue display

There is an effective range, where the measurement can be carried out with an acceptable accuracy

The graphical display gives more details for the measured variable since it gives the magnitude in addition to the type of variation

For example, the variation of a variable with time or other variables can be given directly

# **Display methods**

# Digital display

The display in this case is achieved in a numerical manner

This gives more accurate and definite reading

It is required in this case to have a digital to analogue and analogue to digital converters

# DYNAMIC PERFORMANCE

# **OF ANALOGUE**

INSTRUMENTS

#### Classifications of electrical instruments

Electrical measuring instruments depend on physical effects caused by the electric current or voltage

Magnetic effect (ammeters – voltmeters) Electrodynamic effect (ammeters, voltmeters and wattmeter)

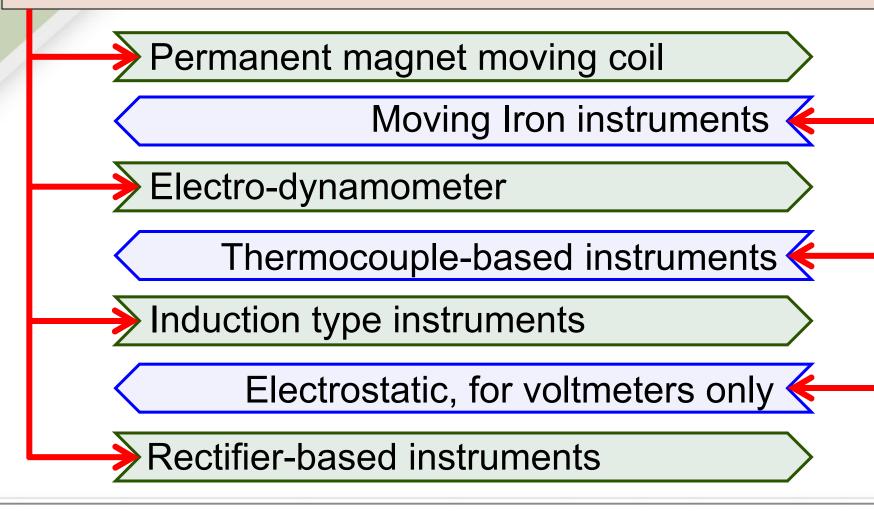
Electromagnetic effect (ammeters, voltmeters, wattmeters and watthour meters)

Thermal effect (ammeters and voltmeters)

Chemical effect (d.c. amperehour meters) Electrostatic effect (voltmeters)

#### Classifications of electrical instruments

Classification of measuring instruments according to the main types of electrical instruments



#### Classifications of electrical instruments

Classification of measuring instruments according to the main types of electrical instruments

PMMC is used only for direct current measurements

Induction type is used only for alternating current
measurements

Other measuring instruments can be used for both dc and ac measurements

# Dynamic performance of analogue instruments

For analog instruments, the dynamics of the pointer movement has a special importance in evaluating the performance of the instrument

Therefore, it is important to investigate this dynamic regarding the factors affecting this dynamic

The pointer can not reach its steady state position immediately due to its mechanical nature

A transient period is required until the pointer take up its final steady state position

The steady-state position is an equilibrium state between two torques, where the deflection is caused by the interaction of two fields

The 1<sup>st</sup> field is due to current flow in the instrument coil. The 2<sup>nd</sup> field is obtained by a permanent magnet, ferromagnetic vanes, or magnetic field produced by a current flowing in another coil

This interaction causes a deflecting torque given by:

$$T = K f(i)$$
 N.m

Where, T is the deflecting torque, K is a constant and "i" is the current

The deflecting torque is a function of the flowing current

The function depends on the instrument type and the way, by which the torque is produced

After applying a signal to the instrument, the pointer starts to move towards the steady state value

This movement during the transient period can take different characteristics depending on the instrument

The equation of motion has a dynamic nature and the equation describing the steady state equilibrium is an equality equation

At steady state, the deflecting torque equals the sum of three toques: the <u>inertia torque</u>, the <u>damping torque</u> and the <u>control torque</u>

$$T = T_i + T_D + T_C$$

Where:

T is the deflecting torque

T<sub>i</sub> is the inertia torque

T<sub>D</sub> is the damping torque

T<sub>C</sub> is the control torque

## Inertia Torque

The moving parts of instrument have a mass and the movement depends on the inertia of this mass "J" The inertia produces an inertia torque that counteracts the pointer movement during the transient period only, while it will be zero at steady-state conditions The inertia torque depends on angular acceleration of the pointer but it opposes its direction of motion Thus, the pointer cannot reach its final position immediately

## **Inertia Torque**

The dynamic description of the inertia torque can be given using a second order differential equation

$$T_i = J \frac{d^2 \theta}{d t^2}$$

Where: "J" is the inertia, " $\theta$ " is the deflecting angle of the pointer and "t" is the time

## **Control Torque**

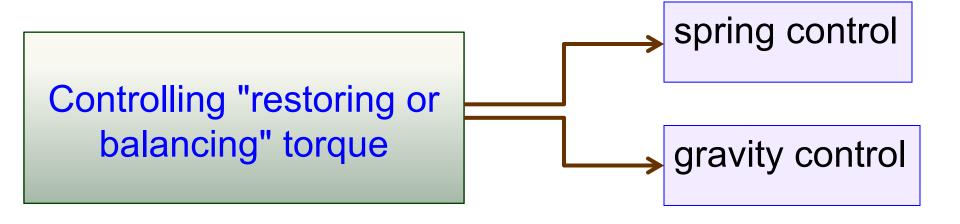
Without controlling "restoring" torque, the deflecting torque will cause a continuous pointer movement Thus, the pointer would swing over to the maximum deflected position regardless of the measured current Controlling torque "T<sub>c</sub>" opposes the deflecting torque and increases with the deflection of moving system It restores the pointer back to zero reading when the input signal is removed Currents of different magnitudes produce deflections

of the moving system in proportion to their size

## **Control Torque**

The pointer comes to rest at the steady state at a position where the two opposing torques are equal

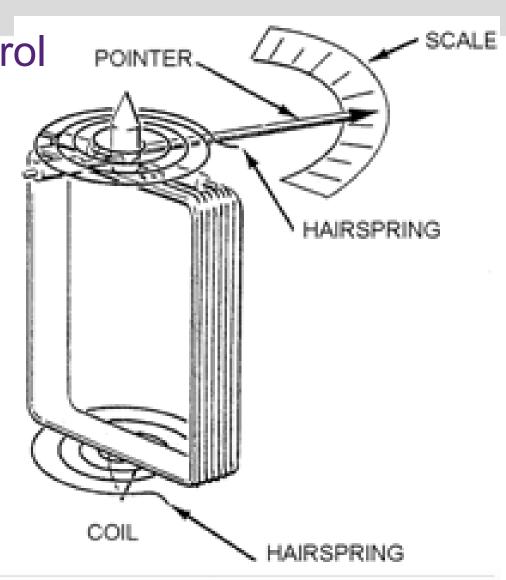
$$T = T_c$$
  $\Longrightarrow$   $Kf(i) = T_C$ 



## **Control Torque**

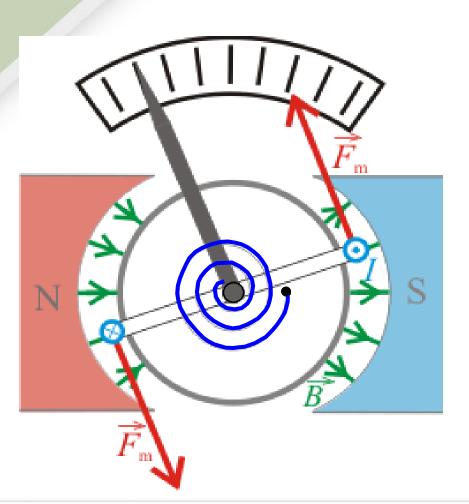
**Spring Control** 

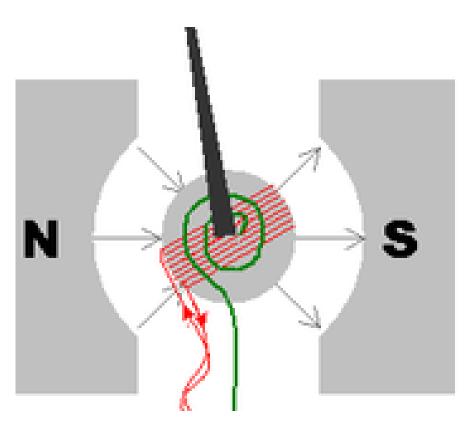
A twisting hairspring, usually of phosphor bronze, is attached to the moving part of the instrument and twists in opposite direction to deflecting torque



### **Control Torque**

**Spring Control** 





### **Control Torque**

**Spring Control** 

With the deflection of the pointer, the spring is twisted in the opposite direction

The spring twist produces restoring torque, which is proportional to the deflection angle

In permanent-magnet moving-coil instruments, the deflecting torque is proportional to the flowing current

ΤαΙ

For spring control:  $T_c \alpha \theta$ 

### **Control Torque**

**Spring Control** 

$$T \alpha I$$
 
$$T_{c} \alpha \theta = C \theta$$

$$T_c = T \rightarrow C \theta \alpha I$$

θαΙ

The last relation indicates that the spring-controlled instruments have a uniform or equally-spaced scales over the whole of their range

#### **Control Torque**

**Spring Control** 

Springs are made of materials with the following characteristics:

They are non-magnetic

They are not subjected to much fatigue

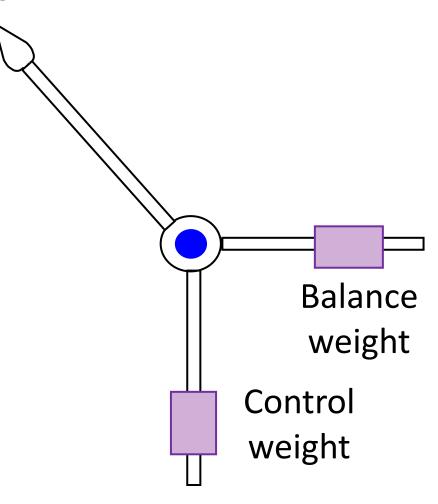
They have low specific resistance

They have low temperature-resistance coefficient

### **Control Torque**

**Gravity Control** 

Gravity control obtained by attaching a small adjustable weight to some part of the moving system "pointer terminal" such that the two torques are opposite directions



### **Control Torque**

**Gravity Control** 

The controlling or restoring torque is proportional to the sine of the angle of deflection

$$T_c \alpha \sin \theta$$

$$T_c = C \sin \theta$$

$$I \alpha \sin \theta$$

**Control Torque** 

**Gravity Control** 

 $I \alpha \sin \theta$ 

The current in these instruments are proportional to the sine of the angle not the angle itself

Gravity-controlled instruments have non-uniform scales with crowded scales at its lower end

### **Control Torque**

**Gravity Control** 

Disadvantages:

They have crowded scale

They have to be kept vertical

Advantages

They are cheap

They are unaffected by temperature

They are not subjected to fatigue or deterioration with time

#### **Example**

For a given ammeter, the deflecting torque is in proportional with the square of the current. A current of 2 A produces a deflection angle of 90°. What is the required current to produce a deflection angle of 45°? Assume that the instrument has:

i) Spring control

ii) Gravity control

#### **Solution**

The deflecting torque is in proportional with the square of the current

$$T \alpha I^2 \rightarrow T = K I^2$$

i) for Spring control

$$\frac{T_1}{T_2} = \frac{I_1^2}{I_2^2} = \frac{\theta_1}{\theta_2} \longrightarrow \frac{2^2}{I_2^2} = \frac{90}{45} \longrightarrow I_2 = 1.4142 \text{ A}$$

#### **Solution (cont.)**

ii) for gravity control

$$T = C \sin(\theta)$$

$$\frac{T_1}{T_2} = \frac{I_1^2}{I_2^2} = \frac{\sin(\theta_1)}{\sin(\theta_2)} \longrightarrow \frac{2^2}{I_2^2} = \frac{\sin(90)}{\sin(45)}$$

$$I_2 = 1.682 A$$

### **Damping Torque**

over shooting

The damping torque opposes the moving parts of the instrument when it is in a moving state It acts to stabilize the motion and to bring the pointer to rest quickly by preventing the pointer oscillations around its final position due to inertia effect High damping results in high time till equilibrium, while low damping causes high oscillations The damping degree is adjusted to enable the pointer to rise quickly to its deflected position without

# **Damping Torque**

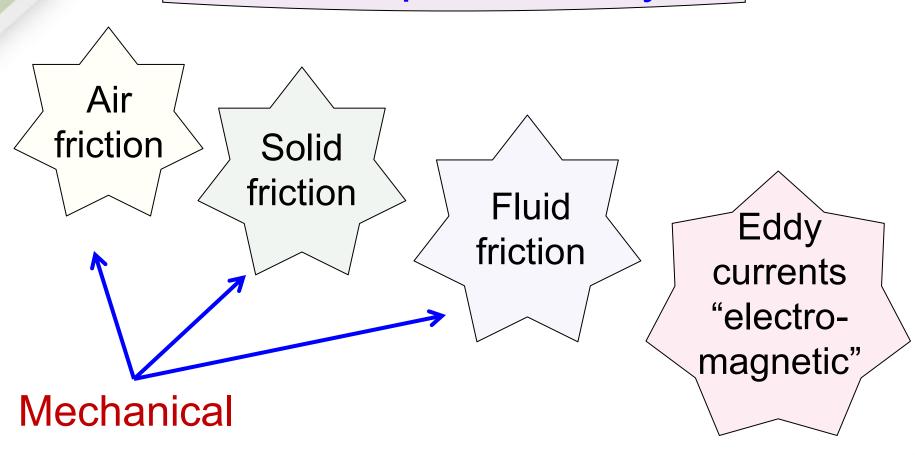
$$T_d = D \frac{d\theta}{dt}$$

T<sub>d</sub> is the damping torque

D is the damping constant

The damping constant depends on the applied damping mechanism

The damping torque can be produced by



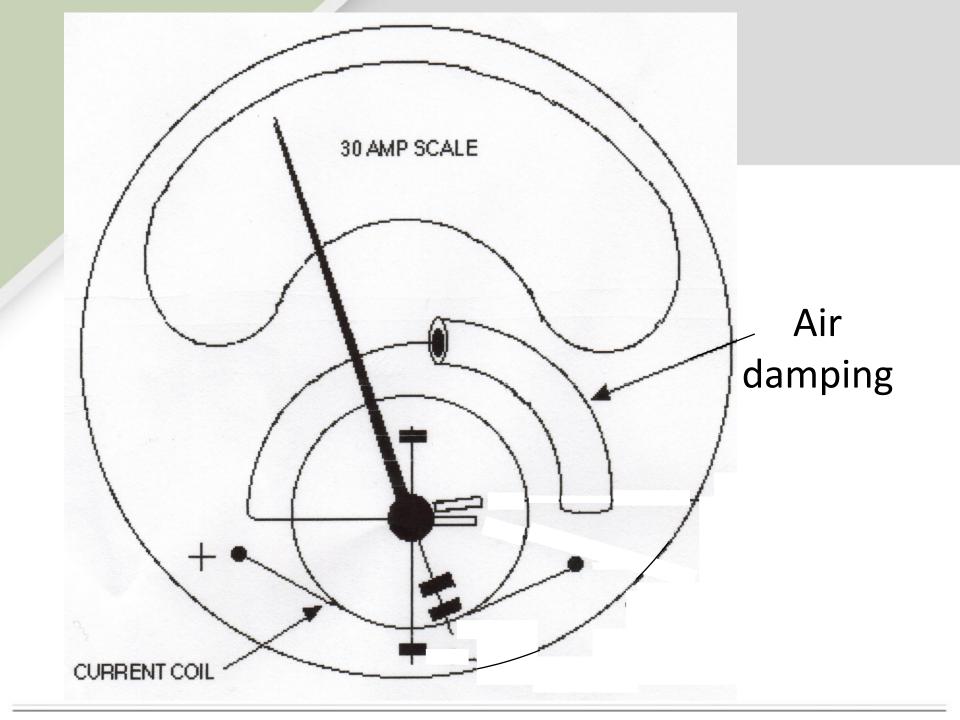
**Damping Torque** 

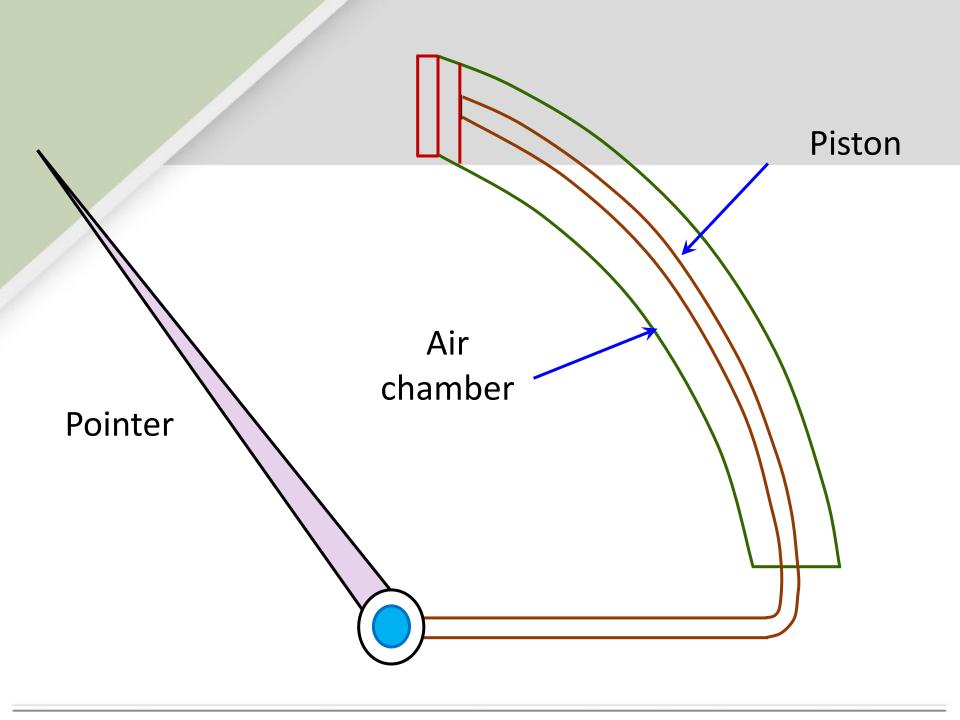
Mechanical damping

Air damping

Achieved though the motion of an aluminium vane in air chamber depending on the mechanical movement and independently of the coil current. The aluminium piston attached to the moving system moves with a very small clearance in a fixed air chamber closed at one end

The chamber cross-section is circular or rectangular





**Damping Torque** 

Mechanical damping

Air damping

The compression and suction actions of the piston on air in the chamber affect the oscillations damping
Air damping is not effective in many situations
During the movement of the pointer, the air contained in the air chamber resists the movement and hence causes a damping

**Damping Torque** 

Mechanical damping

Liquid damping

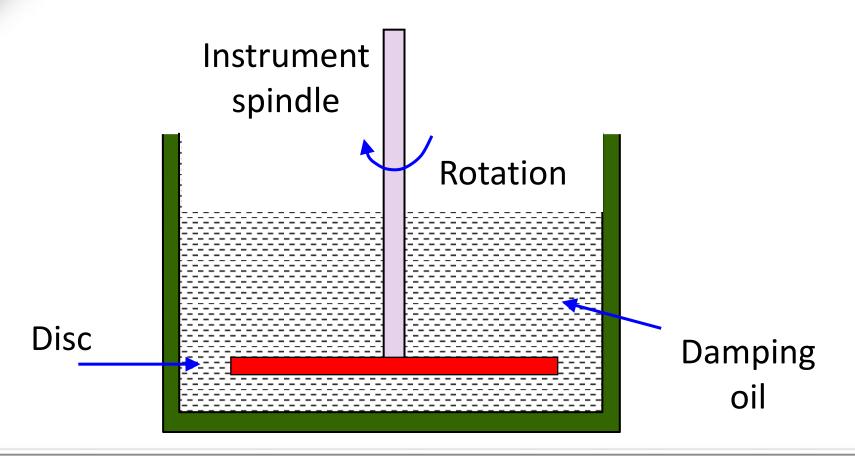
The motion of an aluminium vane is in viscous fluid
It is independent of the current flowing through the coil
The damping is more effective due to the higher
viscosity of oil

Oil damping requires that the instrument is kept in the <u>vertical position</u> and it is unsuitable for portable instruments

**Damping Torque** 

Mechanical damping

Liquid damping



**Damping Torque** 

Mechanical damping

Solid friction damping

Solid friction "pivot friction" is a normal friction due to the mechanical movement

The friction torque, which is not a function of angular velocity, is low enough to be neglected

The mechanical damping is given by:

$$T_{dm} = D_m \frac{d\theta}{dt}$$

**Damping Torque** 

Electromagnetic "eddy current" damping

This is the most efficient damping method A thin disc of a conducting, but non-magnetic, material like copper can be mounted as a frame to the moving system and the pointer of the instrument When the disc rotates, its edges cut the magnetic flux produced by the poles of a permanent magnet The rotation of the coil inside the magnetic field sets up eddy currents circulating in the conductive metal frame

### **Damping Torque**

Electromagnetic "eddy current" damping

The flow of the eddy currents produces a damping force in an opposite direction to that produced them according to Lenz's Law

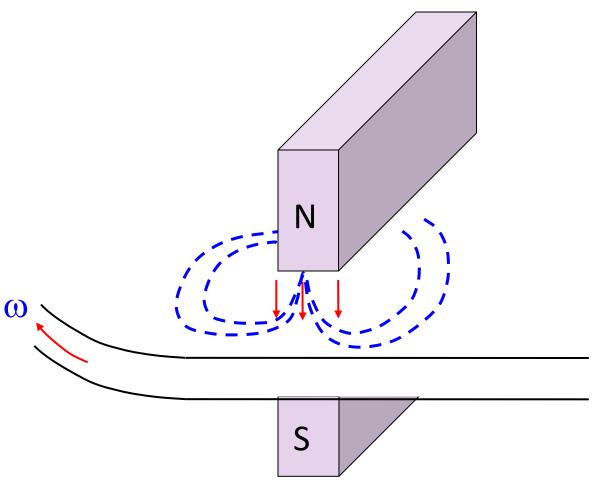
This causes a retarding torque in opposite direction to the motion of the coil and the pointer

The coil can be wound on a thin light aluminium former in which eddy currents are produced when the coil rotates

This type of torque is called "electromagnetic damping torque"

**Damping Torque** 

Electromagnetic "eddy current" damping



**Damping Torque** 

Electromagnetic "eddy current" damping

The eddy-current-damping torque is given as:

$$T_{de} = De \frac{d\theta}{dt}$$

The total damping torque is given by

$$T_d = T_{dm} + T_{de}$$

**Damping Torque** 

Electromagnetic "eddy current" damping

The equivalent damping constant is given by:

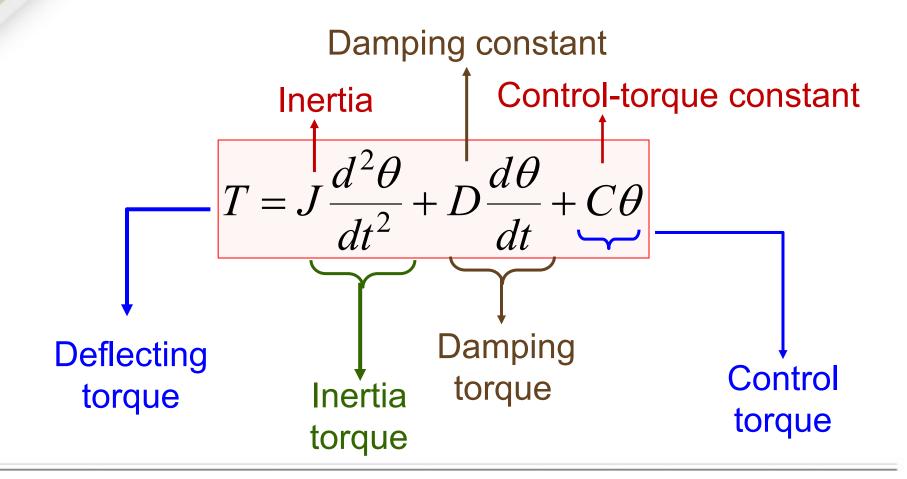
$$D = D_m + D_e$$

The total damping torque is given by:

$$T_d = D \frac{d\theta}{dt}$$

### Solution of the dynamic equation

The equation of motion



### Solution of the dynamic equation

The equation of motion

$$Kf(I) = J\frac{d^{2}\theta}{dt^{2}} + D\frac{d\theta}{dt} + C\theta$$

Solving this  $2^{nd}$  - order differential equation gives the relationship between deflection angle " $\theta$ " and time "t" The behaviour of the instrument depends on the solution of the equation and the relation between the three constants defines the type of performance

### Solution of the dynamic equation

The solution of the equation can take three forms

The first case is the <u>over-damped</u> performance
The pointer moves slowly to its final value without oscillations

The absence of the oscillations represents an advantage for this case but the slow performance represents a main disadvantage

The condition of this situation is given as:

$$D > \sqrt{4CJ}$$

### Solution of the dynamic equation

The solution of the equation can take three forms

The second case is the <u>under-damped</u>
The pointer moves very fast but with high oscillations

The performance is characterized by the damped behaviour and the oscillations decay with time This type of performance is not favourable since the pointer will take a long time to reach steady state

$$D < \sqrt{4CJ}$$

Solution of the dynamic equation

The solution of the equation can take three forms

The third case is the <u>critical-damped</u> performance
The pointer moves faster than the over-damped
case and slower than the under-damped case
The movement takes place without any oscillations
If the pointer moves a little bit faster than this
situation, oscillations start to appear
Therefore, this case is termed "critical-damped"

$$D = \sqrt{4CJ}$$

#### Deflection

